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Animal Welfare Information Center

Newsletter

Summer 1996
Vol. 7, No. 2
ISSN: 1050-561X

CONGRESS IN SESSION

by Cynthia Smith

- **H.R. 1269** A bill to amend the Act of June 22, 1974, to authorize the Secretary of Agriculture to prescribe by regulation the representation of Woodsy Owl.

Introduced on March 21, 1995, by Carlos Moorhead (R-Calif.) and referred to the Committee on the Judiciary.

Section 1 of the act entitled "An act to prevent the unauthorized manufacture and use of the character 'Woodsy Owl,' and for other purposes" is amended by amending paragraph (1) to read: the term "Woodsy Owl" means the name and representation of a fanciful owl who furthers the slogan, "Give a Hoot, Don't Pollute," originated by the Forest Service of the U.S. Department of Agriculture.

- **H.R. 2854** A bill to modify the operation of certain agricultural programs.

Introduced on January 5, 1996, by Pat Roberts (R-Kansas) and signed into law by President Clinton on April 4, 1996, as Public Law 104-127. This

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A Review of the Animal Welfare Enforcement Report Data 1973 Through 1995

by

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Introduction

The data for this review is taken from the U.S. Department of Agriculture's (USDA) *Animal Welfare Enforcement* reports, hereafter referred to as "annual reports," issued each year from 1973 through 1995. The annual reports deal with the number of licensed and registered facilities, animals used in pain and distress reporting categories, and the number of regulated animals reported used in research for each of the years. This compilation of the report data from 1973 to 1995 is not meant to be detailed or comprehensive or to establish any definite concepts or conclusions. It is offered solely to present the data to those interested in such information, to point out areas of reporting that have changed over the years or that may be of questionable value, and to provide some overall trends in enforcement of the Animal Welfare Act (AWA) over a 23-year history. It is hoped that this information will stimulate some thought, discussion, and further analysis of the data. For example, although some stolen dogs have been found in research facilities, the number of dogs reported used in research each year certainly does not support the claim that millions of stolen dogs are used in research.

In this review, the following tables contain data from the *Animal Welfare Enforcement* reports to Congress from 1973 through 1995:

Table 1. Number of Licensees and Registrants: 1973-1995

Table 2. Number of Regulated Animals Used in Research: 1973-1995

Table 3. Number of Animals Used in Pain/Distress Reporting Categories: 1973-1995

Immediately following each table are figures to graphically portray the data from the tables:

Figure 1. Licensed Dealers: 1973-1995

Figure 2. Exhibitors: 1973-1995

Figure 3. Research Facilities: 1973-1995

Figure 4. Pain and Distress Categories: 1973-1995

Figure 5. Animals Used in Research: 1973-1995

Figure 6. Dogs and Cats Used in Research: 1973-1995

Figure 7. Nonhuman Primates Used in Research: 1973-1995

Figure 8. Guinea Pigs, Hamsters, and Rabbits Used in Research: 1973-1995

Figure 9. Other Animals Used in Research: 1973-1995

Notes are provided for each table to indicate issues or events affecting

Table 1. Number of Licensees and Registrants, 1973-1995

Year	International Handlers	Registered Carriers	Licensed Dealers	Licensed Exhibitors	Registered Exhibitors	Research Facilities	Federal Agencies
1973	-----	-----	4,287	286	604	865	-----
1974	-----	-----	5,133	345	752	967	-----
1975	-----	-----	5,680	535	657	985	-----
1976 ¹	-----	-----	4,851	672	464	1,034	40
1977	-----	-----	4,638	848	396	1,024	134
1978	16	50	4,507	924	313	1,057	188
1979	62	77	3,982	978	239	1,051	150
1980	177	97	3,886	1,101	170	1,092	118
1981	197	115	3,664	1,168	130	1,169	131
1982 ²	(339)		3,439	1,237	106	1,113	131
1983	(346)		3,490	1,266	101	1,166	88
1984	228	130	3,365	1,294	83	1,184	141
1985	242	132	3,414	1,322	64	1,219	160
1986	246	138	3,708	1,354	61	1,241	130
1987	250	140	3,811	1,353	58	1,260	160
1988	275	143	4,233	1,418	58	1,308	58 ⁴
1989	282	145	4,082	1,342	46	1,328	58 ⁴
1990	266	136	4,268	1,370	45	1,470	142
1991	301	141	4,400	1,444	51	1,474	145
1992	282	136	4,324	1,618	54	1,527	137
1993	280	129	4,154	1,773	55	1,331	147
1994 ³	246	109	4,238	1,861	35	1,511	250
1995	275	98	4,080	1,937	31	1,300	223

1. The 1976 amendments to the Animal Welfare Act (PL 94-279), approved April 22, 1976, pertained to the transportation of regulated animals in commerce and brought carriers and intermediate handlers under regulation. Transportation standards became effective September 15, 1977, and carriers and intermediate handlers were first included in the 1978 annual report.

The 1976 amendments also required Federal research facilities to comply with the Animal Welfare Act and to submit annual reports to USDA. Federal facility reports were submitted for the period April 22, 1976, through December 31, 1976. Many Federal facilities did not report or made only partial reports. Federal research facilities are not inspected by USDA, but are required to comply with the Act, regulations, and standards.

2. The 1982 and 1983 annual reports listed only combined figures for carriers and intermediate handlers. Separate figures are not available.

3. In 1994, a much higher number of research facilities submitted annual reports than ever before. This is probably due to continued efforts by REAC to improve reporting by research facilities.

4. APHIS reorganized the animal welfare program effective October 1, 1988. Animal welfare was moved from Veterinary Services to Regulatory Enforcement and Animal Care. This transition affected reporting procedures and resulted in inaccurate reporting for Federal agencies for 1988 and 1989.

reporting requirements. It should be noted that each year a variable number of research facilities did not submit reports or submitted reports too late to be included in the annual report. The data, therefore, does not include all regulated animals used in research because these late, or nonreporting,

facilities were omitted. This problem decreased significantly over the past 4 or 5 years because of a concerted effort by USDA's Animal and Plant Health Inspection Service (APHIS), Regulatory Enforcement and Animal Care (REAC) unit to improve reporting by research facilities. It should also

be noted that this data does not include birds, rats of the genus *Rattus*, or mice of the genus *Mus* bred for laboratory use, but it does include wild rats and mice.

The original Laboratory Animal Welfare Act (PL 89-544), passed August 24, 1966, did not require annual reports be made to USDA. The Animal Welfare Act of 1970 (PL 91-579) (approved December 24, 1970) required that research facilities report certain information to USDA, which submits an annual report to Congress containing specific information not later than March of each year. The first *Animal Welfare Enforcement* report to Congress was in 1973, and annual reports have continued since that time with several reporting changes along the way. Each of the annual report tables will be discussed separately.

Licensees and Registrants

The AWA requires the licensing of animal exhibitors, dealers, and animal auction operators. Registrants are all carriers, intermediate handlers, exhibitors not subject to licensing, and non-Federal research facilities. The number of licensees and registrants for each year are shown in table 1. Figures 1, 2, and 3 show the number of licensed dealers, exhibitors, and research facilities from 1973 to 1995 followed by a brief analysis of each category. Instances that may have affected the reporting are indicated by numbered notes for that year.

Intermediate Handlers

Intermediate handlers are people and businesses that handle animals to and from the airport, during layovers, and between connecting flights. Handlers receive custody of the animals during transportation in commerce. Intermediate handlers were brought under regulation by the 1976 amendments to the AWA. There were 16 registered intermediate handlers in 1978. This figure slowly increased to 301 in 1991 and has decreased since

that time to 275 in 1995. Since 1981, the number has fluctuated between 200 and 300 intermediate handlers. These fluctuations are most likely due to people going into and out of business for various reasons.

Carriers

A carrier is a person or enterprise engaged in the business of transporting animals for hire. Carriers are mostly commercial airlines. Carriers were brought under regulation by the 1976 amendments to the AWA. In 1978, there were 50 registered carriers. This figure increased to 145 in 1989 and has steadily decreased since then to 98 in 1995. This decrease is most likely due to changes within the industry, airline mergers, or companies going out of business. Most airlines have sites (cargo and passenger terminals) at many airports throughout the United States. Not all of these sites are inspected by USDA. Inspections by USDA are usually restricted to the larger airports where animal shipments may begin or terminate and at hub airports where animals may change flights or airlines.

Dealers

A dealer is any person who buys, sells, negotiates the sale, or transports regulated animals (live or dead), or parts of regulated animals for regulated purposes. Retail pet stores, as defined in the AWA regulations, and people selling domestic pet animals directly to the pet owner are not included in the definition of a dealer. There are two classes of dealers: A and B. Class A dealers are breeders who only sell the animals they breed and raise. Class B dealers are those who buy and resell animals, negotiate or arrange for the sale of animals, or deliver for transportation or transport, animals that are in commerce for compensation.

In 1973, the first year USDA was required to report to Congress, there were 4,287 licensed dealers. This figure increased over the next 2 years to a high of 5,680 in 1975. The number of dealers then dropped each year to 3,365 in 1984. Since then, the number of dealers has again risen to 4,400 in 1991 with a slight decline in 1992 and 1993 to a total of 4,080 in 1995. The

figures have been more or less stable since 1988.

It is difficult to analyze the increase and decrease in the number of dealers over the years as many factors may be involved. Based on my 27 years in the Animal Welfare program, the following factors probably played a significant role in the variations. The increase from 1973 to 1975 was most likely due to persons starting business and becoming licensed with the idea of making money by selling animals with as little expense as possible. The decrease from 1975 to 1985 was probably due to a combination of economics and USDA enforcement action against the poorest dealers. Those dealers with minimal, or substandard, operations found they could not make sufficient money because of unhealthy animals and additionally were subject to legal action and possible penalties from USDA. As the years went by, USDA increased the number of legal actions and the severity of the penalties against the dealers who were not in compliance. This continuous decline in the number of dealers for about 10 years appears to coincide with enforcement efforts and public concern.

In 1985, the number of dealers started increasing again and has held fairly steady, in the low 4,000 range, since 1988. It was about this time that

the wholesale pet trade began to organize because of concerns with poor dealer operations and the industry's economic future in view of bad publicity it was receiving. Concerned members of the pet trade succeeded in organizing and establishing standards for a voluntary, self-regulation program. This effort continues to grow and provide a higher quality animal to the pet market. This has very possibly influenced the stability in the number of dealers since about 1988. Also, several States in the Midwest have passed legislation to oversee dealers and have implemented regulatory programs to improve animal care and housing. These programs, in conjunction with the AWA and with cooperation between the States and APHIS, have impacted dealer operations.

Although the dealer category includes people selling animals for pets, exhibition, research, and auction sales; wild and exotic animal dealers; and some transporters, most are involved in the pet trade. The total number of class B dealers has usually averaged about 25 percent to 30 percent of the total number of dealers, with less than 100 random source B dealers providing animals for research purposes. The rest of the B dealers are involved in the pet trade, wild or exotic animal sales, or transportation. Most A dealers (or

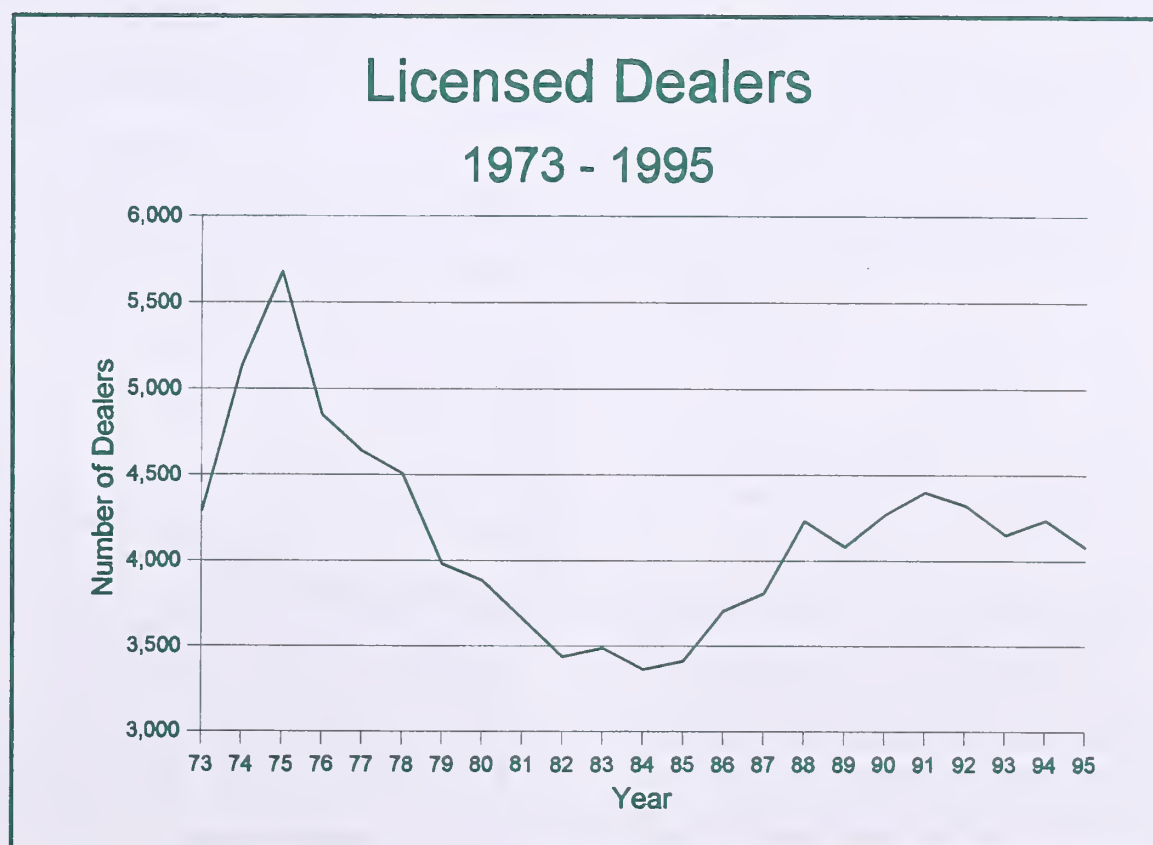


Figure 1

Exhibitors 1973 - 1995

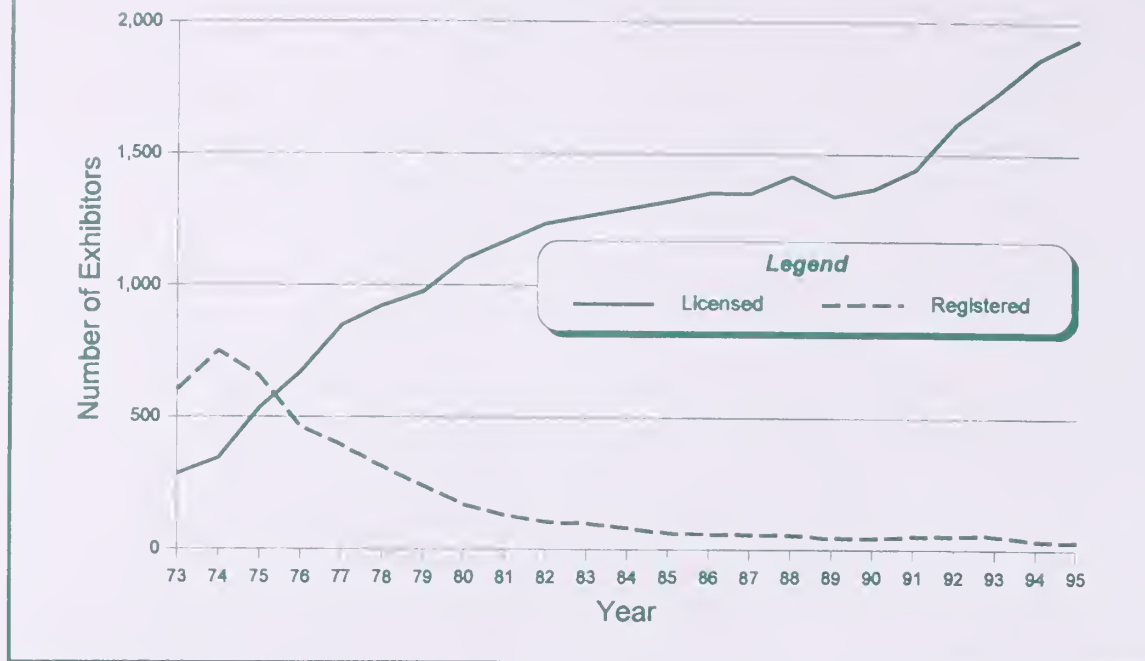


Figure 2

breeders) are involved in the pet trade, with a small number raising animals for research. Significant variations in the number of dealers would, therefore, mostly involve the pet trade.

Exhibitors

An exhibitor is anyone obtaining, distributing, or transporting regulated animals in commerce and exhibiting them to the public for compensation. Most exhibitors meet these requirements and are required to license with USDA. Those who do not obtain, dispose of, or transport animals in commerce and who receive no compensation are registered. Both licensed and registered exhibitors must comply with the same regulations and standards, however. Exhibitors are involved in a variety of endeavors such as municipal or county zoos, roadside and private zoos, theme parks, marine mammal parks, petting zoos, educational exhibits, circuses and carnivals, animal acts, and animals used in television and movie work.

Exhibitors were brought under regulation by the 1970 amendments to the Laboratory Animal Welfare Act and were included in the first report to Congress in 1973. There were 286 licensed exhibitors in 1973. The number of licensed exhibitors has increased

each year since then with 1,937 exhibitors being licensed in 1995. Some of this increase is due to the regulation of additional species of animals, such as the regulation of marine mammals in 1979 and farm animals in 1990. Some of the increase is due to changing improperly registered exhibitors to a

licensed exhibitor status. Most of the growth, however, has been due to an increase in animal exhibit facilities and animal acts being presented to the public for entertainment and enjoyment.

Registered exhibitors totaled 604 in 1973 and reached a high of 752 in 1974. Since that time, registered exhibitors have steadily decreased each year with a total of 31 in 1995. This is due to the fact that many exhibitors were improperly registered in the first couple of years of regulation when they should have been licensed. Continued review of registered exhibitors by USDA has resulted in most of them being converted to a licensed exhibitor status with only a small number qualifying for registration.

The types of animals involved in the regulation of exhibitors range from wild rodents and bats to elephants and killer whales. The total number of exhibitors (both licensed and registered) was 890 in 1973 and 1,968 in 1995, a little over double the number of exhibitors regulated in 1973.

Research Facilities

A research facility is any person, institution, organization, or school (except an elementary or secondary school) that uses or intends to use regu-

Research Facilities 1973 - 1995



Figure 3

Table 2. Regulated Animals Used in Research, 1973-1995

Year	All Animals	Dogs	Cats	Primates	Guinea Pigs	Hamsters	Rabbits	Farm Animals	Other Animals
1973	1,653,345 ⁴	195,157	66,195	42,298	408,970	454,986	447,570	-----	38,169
1974	1,692,527	199,204	74,259	51,253	430,439	430,766	425,585	-----	81,021
1975	1,625,660 ⁴	154,489	51,439	36,202	436,446	456,031	448,530	-----	42,523
1976	1,922,100 ⁴	210,330	70,468	50,115	486,310	503,590	527,551	-----	73,736
1977 ¹	1,519,669 ⁴	176,430	62,311	53,116	348,741	393,533	439,003	-----	46,535
1978	1,687,201	197,010	65,929	57,009	419,341	414,394	475,162	-----	58,356
1979	1,832,045	211,104	69,103	59,359	457,134	419,504	539,594	-----	76,247
1980	1,661,904	188,783	68,482	56,024	422,390	405,826	471,297	-----	49,102
1981	1,658,441 ⁴	188,649	58,090	57,515	432,632	397,522	473,922	-----	50,111
1982	1,577,292 ⁴	161,396	49,923	46,388	459,246	337,790	453,506	-----	69,043
1983	1,680,242	174,542	53,344	54,926	485,048	337,023	466,810	-----	108,549
1984	2,074,133	201,936	56,910	55,338	561,184	437,123	529,101	-----	232,541
1985	2,153,787	194,905	59,211	57,271	598,903	414,460	544,621	-----	284,416
1986	1,778,403	176,141	54,125	48,540	462,699	370,655	521,773	-----	144,470
1987	1,969,123	180,169	50,145	61,392	538,998	416,002	554,385	-----	168,032
1988	1,635,288	140,471	42,271	51,641	431,457	331,945	459,254	-----	178,249
1989	1,754,456	156,443	50,812	51,688	481,712	389,042	471,037	-----	153,722
1990 ²	1,578,099	109,992	33,700	47,177	352,627	311,068	399,264	66,702	257,569
1991	1,842,420	107,908	34,613	42,620	378,582	304,207	396,046	214,759	363,685
1992	2,134,182	124,161	38,592	55,105	375,063	369,585	431,432	210,936	529,308
1993 ³	1,704,505	106,191	33,991	49,561	392,138	318,268	426,501	165,416	213,309
1994	1,624,649	101,090	32,610	55,113	360,184	298,934	393,751	180,667	202,300
1995	1,395,463	89,420	29,569	50,206	333,379	248,402	354,076	163,985	126,426

1. Animals were reported only from January 1, 1977, through September 30, 1977, because of a change in reporting from calendar year to fiscal year.
2. Farm animals were regulated in June 1990, and required to be reported.
3. A review of the 1993 annual report indicates inaccuracies in the figures for farm animals and other animals because of birds and cold-blooded species such as fish, frogs, and lizards, being included in the counts. The correct figure for farm animals for 1993 is 165,416 instead of 365,233. The correct figure for other animals is 212,309 instead of 677,556. This also changes the total for all animals to 1,704,505 instead of 2,369,439.
4. Addition mistakes were made in calculating the total number of all animals used in research in the annual reports for 1973, 1975, 1976, 1977, 1981, and 1982. The figures indicated in the annual report for these years for all animals used in research are as follows:

1973	1,653,132
1975	1,378,030
1976	1,779,837
1977	1,521,595
1981	1,658,439
1982	1,576,556

The correct figures for all animals for these years are shown in table 2.

lated animals in research, tests, experiments, or teaching, and that purchases or transports animals in commerce, or receives Federal funds for carrying out such research, tests, experiments, or teaching. Research facilities that use animals include hospitals, colleges and universities, diagnostic and toxicology laboratories, pharmaceutical companies, and biotechnology industries.

Research facilities are classified as active or inactive facilities. An inactive facility is one where no regulated animals are kept or used. The total number of registered research facilities in 1995 was 1,300 (both active and inactive). There were an additional 223 Federal research facilities reporting.

In the first annual report to Congress in 1973, there were 865 registered

research facilities. The number of research facilities increased almost yearly to a high of 1,527 in 1992. The total dropped to 1,331 in 1993, rose to 1,511 in 1994, then dropped again slightly to 1,300 in 1995. This is almost a 75-percent increase over the number of registered research facilities in 1973. A research facility may have only one animal site or may have more than a

Table 3. Animals Used in Pain Reporting Categories, 1973-1995

Year	No Pain & No Drugs	With Pain/Distress & With Drugs	With Pain/Distress & Without Drugs
1973 ¹	-----	-----	(19,336)
1974 ²	-----	-----	(1,774) 65,301
1975	-----	-----	117,756
1976	-----	-----	129,263
1977 ³	-----	-----	114,911
1978	-----	-----	150,191
1979 ⁴	-----	504,790	108,788
1980	-----	481,716	122,650
1981	-----	493,681	101,653
1982	-----	465,518	130,363
1983	-----	515,608	139,411
1984	-----	665,543	128,256
1985	-----	766,804	147,422
1986	-----	608,308	113,161
1987	-----	692,247	130,373
1988 ⁵	-----	961,271	90,400
1989 ⁶	1,019,350	619,219	116,587
1990	920,330	568,145	89,624
1991	1,131,139	602,415	108,866
1992	1,241,373	772,601	120,208
1993	1,281,969	926,990	160,480
1994	884,591	560,871	179,187
1995	754,712	517,377	123,374

1. The 1973 and early 1974 annual report did not request the number of animals used in research, but only requested the number of experiments involving unrelieved pain or distress for animals. This is the first year reports were required. From late 1974 to 1978, only animals involving unrelieved pain or distress were required to be reported. The number of experiments reported in 1973 and 1974 are shown in parentheses, with the numbers of animals reported shown each year thereafter.
2. In late 1974, a revised reporting form was distributed to research facilities requesting the number of animals exposed to unrelieved pain rather than the number of experiments. Figures for both the number of animals and the number of experiments are shown for 1974.
3. Reports on the number of animals used subject to unrelieved pain (no drugs) were reported only from January 1, 1977, through September 30, 1977, because of a change in reporting from calendar year to fiscal year.
4. The 1979 annual report was the first report to list both the number of animals used involving pain that was relieved by drugs and the number of animals used involving unrelieved pain (no drugs).
5. APHIS reorganized the animal welfare program effective October 1, 1988. Animal welfare was moved from Veterinary Services to Regulatory Enforcement and Animal Care. This transition affected reporting lines and procedures and could have affected the data in both reporting categories.
6. The reporting of animals used involving no pain and no drugs, in addition to the two previous categories, was required in the 1989 annual report.

dozen animal sites. In 1995, the 1,300 registered research facilities had 2,688 animal sites. The almost 75-percent increase in research facilities since 1973 presents an interesting statistic, especially when research dollars are reportedly becoming harder to obtain. From the increase in the number of research facilities, one would surmise that the competition for research funding has significantly increased, the amount of funding for research has significantly increased, research has changed to use less expensive methods, or a great deal more private money is being used for research. From this data, it is not clear why the number of research facilities has increased so dramatically but the rapid developments in biotechnology, medicine, and pharmaceuticals are good possibilities.

When one looks at the number of research facilities compared to the total number of animals used in research (excluding birds, laboratory rats and mice, and cold-blooded species) over the same period, the data is even more interesting. The total number of regulated animals used in research is shown in table 2. In 1973, there were 1,653,132 animals reported used in research, not counting farm animals, birds, rats, or mice. In 1995, there were 1,395,644 regulated animals reported used in research, including farm animals but not including birds, rats, or mice. It is recognized that the actual figures on animal use are not complete each year because of too-late reports, or because no reports have been submitted. Because birds, rats, and mice are not included in the number of animals reported, the numbers of these animals may have increased while the number of regulated animals showed little change. There is also some variation in reporting from year to year for various reasons. Still, the overall trend over 23 years should be fairly valid.

The figures vary up and down over the years but remain fairly consistent. Why has the number of research facilities shown an almost 75-percent increase while the total number of animals used has remained fairly steady? There could be any number of reasons. In their book *The Principles of Humane Experimental Technique* (1959, reprinted in 1992 by the Universities Federation for Animal Welfare, Herts, England), W.M.S. Russell and R.L. Burch ad-

vanced the concept of the 3Rs--reduction in animal number, refinement of technique to minimize pain and distress, and replacement of animal models with nonanimal models. In current research, the 3R's may be working better than many people realize. It is also possible that economics may have played a role in this as well as scientific and technological improvements within the industry. I will not attempt to offer an answer here, but only to pose the question. Perhaps some industrious person will look into this question more thoroughly.

Federal Agencies

The AWA amendments of 1976 required Federal research facilities to submit an annual report to USDA. The report to Congress for 1976 indicated 40 Federal research facilities reporting for the period from April 22, 1976, through December 31, 1976. The 1977 report showed 134 Federal research facilities reporting. The figures vary between about 130 and 160 reporting Federal research facilities over the next 17 years. In 1994, there were 250 Federal research facilities reporting, with a drop to 223 in 1995. This general increase in the number of Federal research facilities reporting could be due to several factors: (1) A concerted effort on behalf of USDA to improve reporting by research facilities, (2) congressional investigation of research in the Department of Defense (DoD) in the early 1990's, and (3) meetings of the Interagency Research Animal Committee (IRAC). These may all have assisted in improving the reporting by Federal agencies. The 2 years, 1988 and 1989, show 58 reporting Federal research facilities. These figures are not correct. The animal welfare program was removed from USDA, APHIS, Veterinary Services (VS), on September 30, 1988, and established as USDA, APHIS, Regulatory Enforcement and Animal Care (REAC) on October 1, 1988. Because of the reorganization, change of responsibility, new offices and personnel, and new reporting lines, incorrect data was

obtained for these 2 years. The correct figures could not be obtained for these years. The next 4 years show reporting Federal research facility numbers about equivalent to the numbers in preceding years, and a significant increase occurred in reporting Federal research facilities in 1994 and 1995. The increased scrutiny of research by Congress, animal rights groups, and the public, plus efforts by USDA, APHIS to improve facility reporting, are probably responsible in part for this increase in reporting Federal research facilities.

Pain/Distress Reporting Categories

The number of animals used in pain and distress reporting categories each year is shown in table 3. Figure 4 shows the data from 1973 through 1995 followed by a brief analysis of each category. Instances that may have affected the reporting are indicated by numbered notes for that year immediately after the table.

General

The first annual report in 1973 and most of the year of 1974 required only the reporting of the number of "experiments" involving animals with unrelieved pain or distress. In the latter part of 1974, research facilities were required to report the number of animals used involving unrelieved pain or distress rather than the number of experiments. The data for these 2 years, therefore, is questionable when used with the rest of the data in table 3. The first year with valid usable data is 1975. Also, in 1988, APHIS reorganized the animal welfare program by removing it from Veterinary Services (VS) and placing it in Regulatory Enforcement and Animal Care (REAC). In looking at the figures for 1988, it is apparent that they differ somewhat from the figures of the previous years and the years following 1988. The figures may be questionable because of the disruption and change in reporting, inspection, and recordkeeping procedures because of the APHIS reorganization. The 1988 figures should, therefore, be viewed with caution. It should also be remembered that these figures do not

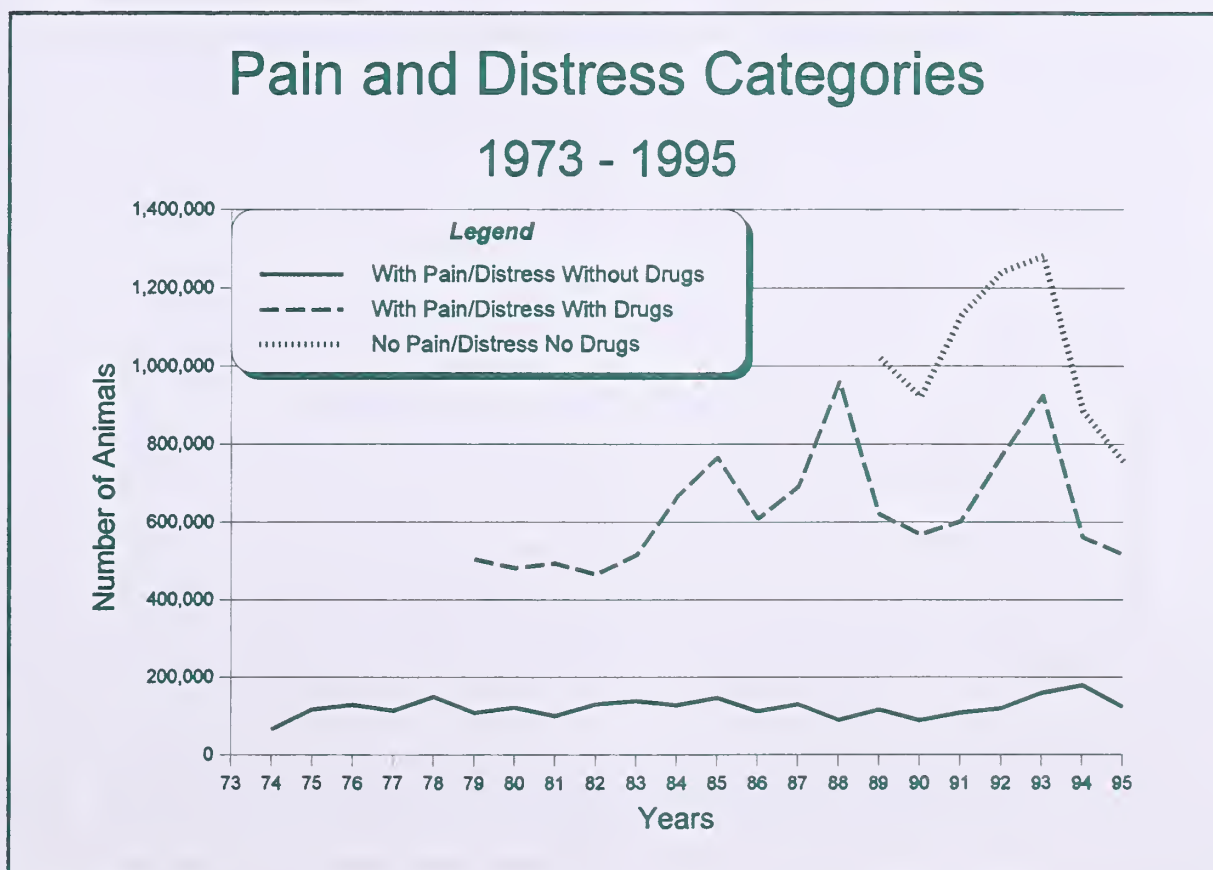


Figure 4

include birds, rats, or mice, and only include farm animals starting in June of 1990.

With Pain/Distress and Without Drugs

The data reported in 1973 and part of 1974 was for the number of experiments involving unrelieved pain or distress to the animals rather than the number of animals used. In late 1974, research facilities were required to report the number of animals subjected to unrelieved pain or distress rather than the number of experiments. The figures in parentheses in 1973 and 1974 indicate the number of experiments while the other figures indicate the number of animals. The first entire year for reporting animals subject to unrelieved pain or distress was 1975. The 1975 annual report indicates 117,756 animals with unrelieved pain were used in research that year. The following years show an up-and-down pattern with a low of 89,624 reported in 1990, a high of 179,187 reported in 1994 and a drop to 123,374 in 1995. The figures show a varied pattern over the years and, except for a peak of 150,191 in 1978, a general increase in the number of animals subjected to unrelieved pain or distress from 1975 to 1985.

From 1986 to 1991, there was a general reduction in the number of animals subjected to unrelieved pain or distress and then increases in 1992, 1993, and 1994 to a high of 179,187, with a decrease in 1995. The increase in the number of reported animals used in experiments involving unrelieved pain or distress in 1993 and 1994 may be due to better and more standard reporting procedures and an increase in the number of research facilities reporting on time. There may be other reasons also, such as a change in the type of research being conducted, which is not apparent from the data collected. Additional information is necessary for further analysis. It is interesting to note that there were not corresponding decreases in the number of animals subjected to pain or distress that was alleviated by drugs.

With Pain/Distress and With Drugs

In 1979, the annual report contained data on the number of animals used in potentially painful or distressful procedures in which the pain or distress was relieved by drugs as well as the number of animals subjected to unrelieved pain or distress. The data for 1979 shows 504,790 animals used in

potentially painful or distressful procedures in which the pain or distress was relieved by drugs. The figures hold fairly steady over the years except for spikes in 1985, 1987, 1988, 1992, and 1993. I can offer no reason for the higher numbers in these years other than changes in the type of research that was carried out during these periods or misreporting. Again, more information is necessary to properly explain these figures.

No Pain/Distress and No Drugs

In 1989, the Department began collecting data on the number of animals used in research projects involving no pain or distress and no pain-relieving drugs. These figures have held fairly steady, at about the 1-million range, over the past 7 years, with the lowest number of 754,712 reported in 1995. There is insufficient data here to draw any conclusions other than that the numbers are fairly comparable each year.

Animals Used in Research

The number of regulated animals reported used in research is shown in table 2. Figures 5 through 9 show the breakdown by type of animal. Instances that may have affected the reporting are indicated by numbered notes for that year immediately following the table.

General

The number of animals used in research has been a controversial topic for many years. There is little reliable data on the number of animals used in research other than *Animal Welfare Enforcement*, USDA's annual report to Congress. The annual report figures are not accurate and complete in the number of animals used in research for the following reasons:

1. The Animal Welfare Act regulates only warm-blooded animals, and there are some exceptions.
2. Rats of the genus *Rattus*, mice of the genus *Mus*, and birds are not presently regulated or required to be reported.

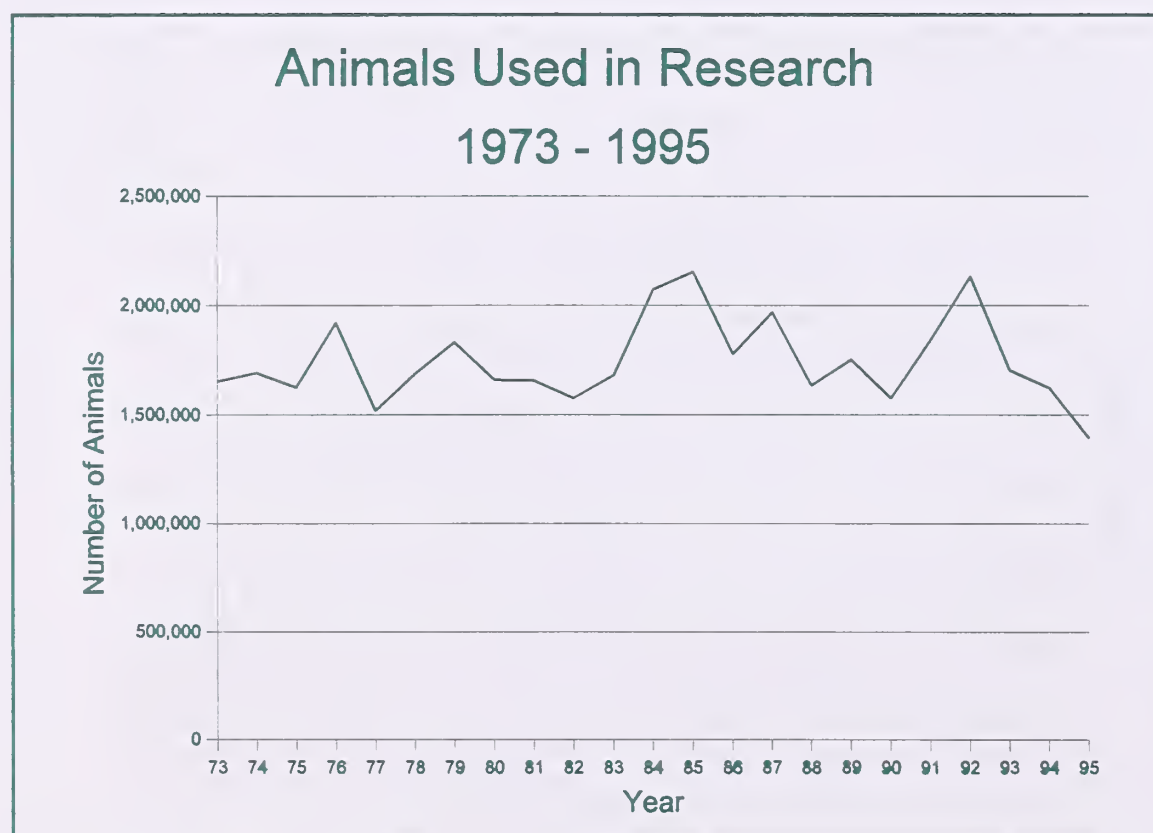


Figure 5

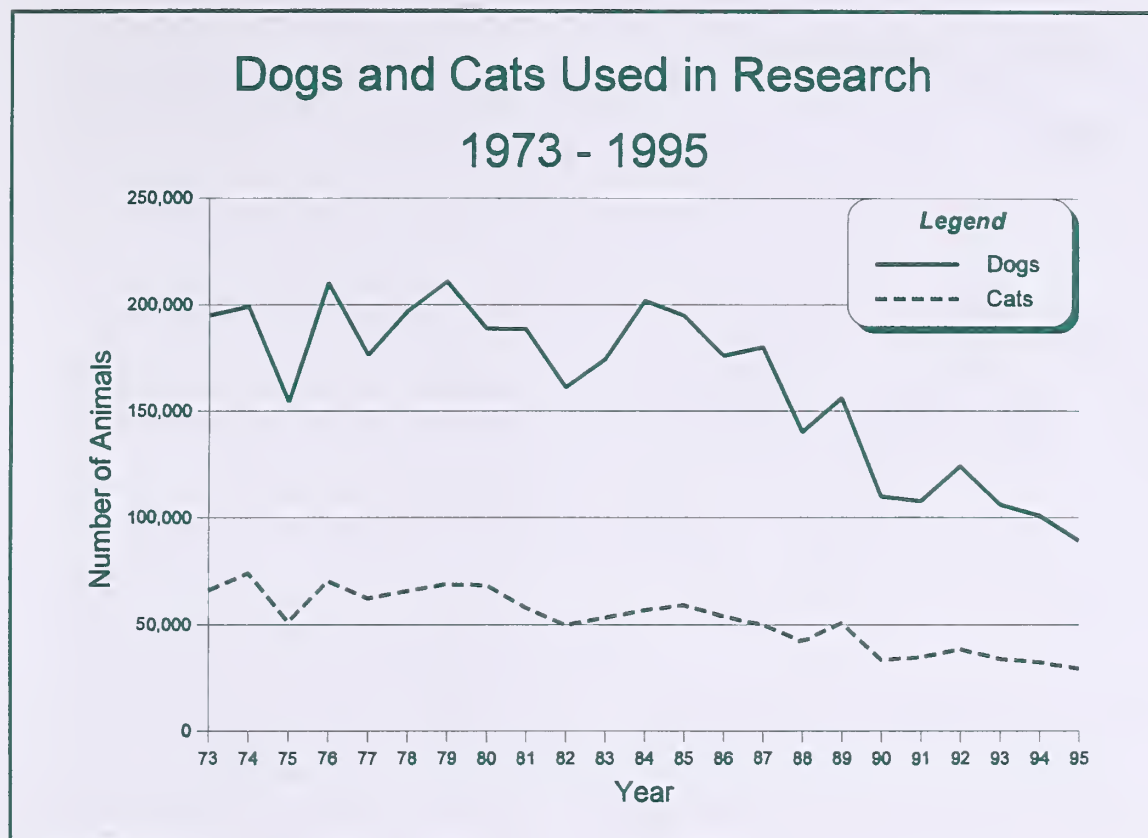


Figure 6

3. Farm animals were not regulated and reported until June 1990.
4. Annual reports compiled by USDA were not complete in that some facility annual reports were not received at all or were received too late to be included in the annual report to Congress. Significant improvement has been made in this area over the past several years.

Even with these omissions, the USDA annual report data is the best available for the numbers of regulated animals used in research. While definitive conclusions cannot be made from this data, general trends can be observed from the numbers of animals reported. Any analysis of the figures on the numbers of animals used in research should also consider the number of registered research facilities, which increased from 865 in 1973 to 1,527 in 1992, then decreased to 1,300 in 1995. I do not intend to do a detailed analysis of these figures, but only to point out general trends and possible influencing factors. I leave the detailed analysis to those more capable than I in these matters. Have fun!

All Animals Used in Research

This category includes warm-blooded animals used for research ex-

cept for rats of the genus *Rattus*, mice of the genus *Mus*, and birds. Additionally, farm animals used for food, fiber, and other agricultural purposes are not included in these figures.

In 1973, a reported 1,653,345 regulated animals were used in research with 1,395,463 animals reported used in research in 1995. The figures reported between 1973 and 1995 vary with highs of 2,074,133 in 1984, 2,153,787 in 1985, and 2,134,182 in 1992. With the exception of these high years, the rest of the years are fairly constant in the number of animals used in research with some fluctuation but within the range of 1 to 2 million. Overall, the total number of regulated animals used in research has not significantly increased or decreased in the past 23 years. The increase in the number of registered research facilities from 865 in 1973 to 1,300 in 1995 poses some interesting questions. Are more research facilities using fewer animals each year? Are more research facilities using nonregulated animals? Have the 3R's had an impact on the number of animals used? How have economics and increasing costs affected the number of animals used in research? Not only is it likely that all these factors have had some impact on the number of animals used, but additional factors that are not so readily ap-

parent may be involved. A look at the number of animals used, by species, may give an indication of what is happening.

Dogs Used in Research

In 1973, there were 195,157 dogs reported used in research. This figure stayed in the high 100,000 range until 1985 with peaks of over 200,000 in 1976, 1979, and 1984. There were 194,905 dogs reported used in research in 1985. This number then gradually decreased over the next 10 years to a low of 89,420 dogs in 1995. The number of dogs used appears to be fairly constant between 1973 and 1985. From 1985 to 1995, the numbers of dogs used for research continued to decrease. In 1985, the Improved Standards for Laboratory Animals Act was passed as an amendment to the AWA. This amendment required research facilities to develop and carry out a plan to provide for exercise for dogs maintained at research facilities. It is interesting to note that the decline in the use of dogs reported used for research follows the passage of the 1985 amendment to the AWA. During the period just before 1985 and in the years since 1985, there has been increased concern and pressure from humane and animal rights groups concerning dogs used in research. Could compliance with the opportunity for exercise requirement have encouraged research facilities to review their use of dogs in research and to eliminate the nonessential use of dogs to reduce compliance problems and expenses? This decline suggests that the amendment encouraged implementation of the 3R's and researchers reduced the number of dogs used by substituting other species or methods. It is very likely that other factors, such as economics, also played a role in decreasing the number of dogs used in research since 1985.

Cats Used in Research

In 1973, there were 66,195 cats reported used in research. This figure rose to a high of 74,259 in 1974. From 1975 to 1987, the number of cats used in research fluctuated in the range of 50,000 to 60,000 except for a rise to 70,468 in 1976. Since 1986, the number of cats used in research has steadily declined to a low 29,569 in 1995. This

Nonhuman Primates Used in Research 1973 - 1995



Figure 7

9-year decrease in the number of cats used in research is similar to the 10-year decrease in the use of dogs in research. The factors that may have influenced the use of cats in research are not as strong, or comparable, to the factors that possibly influenced the use of dogs in research. There were no special requirements placed on cats by the 1985 amendment as were placed on dogs, so there is no legislative influence to precipitate such a decline in numbers. Is it possible that economic factors, the 3R's, and associated influence from the use of dogs affected the use of cats in research? The decrease in the number of cats used in research during the same time period as the decrease in the number of dogs used may be coincidental, but the time period and decreased numbers suggest a connection. Whatever the cause, there has been a significant decrease in the number of cats used in research since 1973.

Nonhuman Primates Used in Research

There were 42,298 nonhuman primates reported used in research in 1973, with 51,253 used in 1974 and a low of 36,202 used in 1975. From 1973 to 1995 the number of nonhuman

primates reported used in research varied mostly within the range of 40,000 to 50,000 with highs of 59,359 in 1979 and 61,392 in 1987. The 1995 report indicated 50,206 nonhuman primates used in research. Overall, the trend in nonhuman primates used in research appears to be fairly steady. The 1985

amendment to the AWA also required a physical environment adequate to promote the psychological well-being of nonhuman primates. This requirement, however, has not led to a decrease in the number of nonhuman primates used in research as possibly occurred with the use of dogs. There has also been concern and opposition from animal protection groups about use of nonhuman primates in research, but this has apparently not affected the use of nonhuman primates. There are also no apparent economic issues that have led to any decrease in use of nonhuman primates. The data suggests that the type of research involving nonhuman primates either requires nonhuman primates as the animal model or that the research involving nonhuman primates is important enough to continue their use so that the 3R's have had little applicability. Whatever the reasons, the number of nonhuman primates used in research has changed little over the past 22 years.

Guinea Pigs Used in Research

In 1973, there were 408,970 guinea pigs reported used in research. This figure gradually increased to a

Guinea Pigs/Hamsters/Rabbits 1973 - 1995

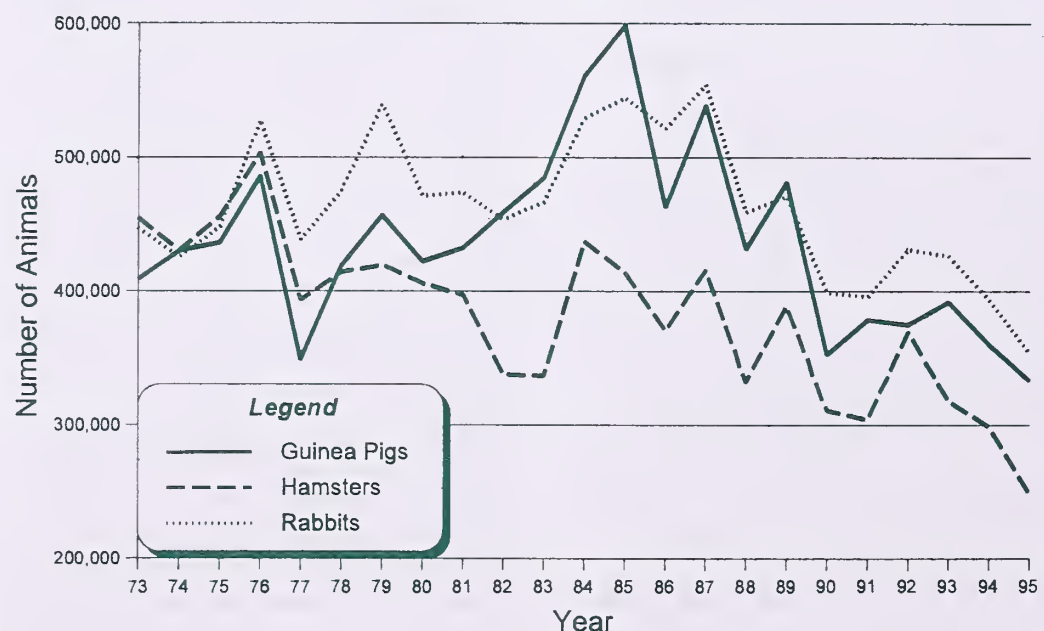


Figure 8

Other Animals Used in Research

1973 - 1995

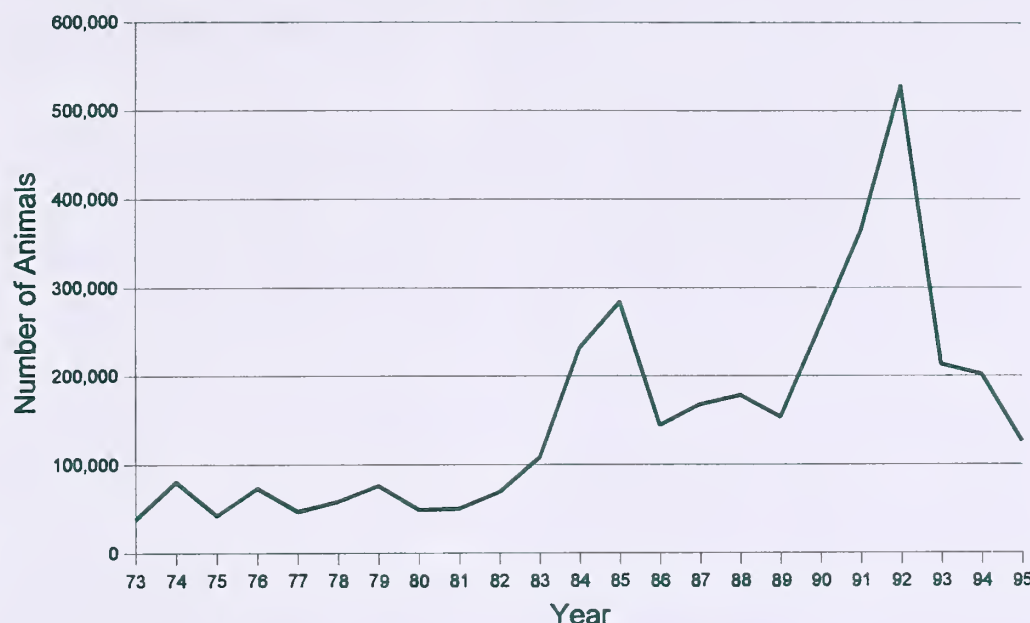


Figure 9

high of 598,903 in 1985 and has gradually decreased since 1985 to 333,379 in 1995. From 1973 to 1989, the number of guinea pigs used in research remained largely in the range of 400,000 to 500,000 with spikes into the 500,000 to 600,000 range. Since 1990, the number has decreased. There is no apparent reason for the slight decrease, but it may be due to the type of research being done, increased application of the 3R's, or advancement in methods and technology.

Hamsters Used in Research

There were 454,986 hamsters reported used in research in 1973 with a high of 503,590 in 1976 and a low of 248,402 in 1995. From 1973 to 1981, the number of hamsters held fairly steady in the range of 400,000 to 500,000. From 1982 to 1989, the figures also included the range of 300,000 to 400,000. Although the numbers vary somewhat from 1990 to 1995, there is a general downward trend over this 6-year period. The data suggests no reasons for this slight decrease other than those suggested for guinea pigs above.

Rabbits Used in Research

There were 447,570 rabbits reported used in research in 1973, with a high of 554,385 used in 1987 and a low of 354,076 in 1995. Although use of rabbits has varied from year to year, the trend has held fairly steady with usage holding in the range of 400,000 to 500,000. The number has held fairly steady over the years with some variations. The rabbit appears to be the steadiest of all the animal numbers reported. It could be the species that is used most in research except for laboratory rats and mice, which are not regulated or reported at this time.

Farm Animals Used in Research

Farm animals were brought under regulation in June 1990, so the figures for that year may not be complete and may not indicate the true number of farm animals used in research in 1990. The data available indicates that the number of farm animals on a yearly basis would probably be close to the range of 200,000 to 300,000. The 1993 annual report indicated there were 365,233 farm animals used in research. A review of the annual reports by REAC showed this to be an incorrect

figure because nonregulated animals such as chickens and other birds were reported. The correct figure for 1993 is 165,416 farm animals used in research (table 2). There is insufficient data at this time to make any assumptions on the trend of farm animal use in research.

Other Animals Used in Research

The category of Other Animals covers a broad range of animal species, from wild rats and mice, squirrels, ferrets, and bats, to wild, exotic, hoof stock, carnivores, and marine mammals. There were 38,169 other animals used in 1973, which is also the lowest number reported, and 126,426 other animals used in 1995. The 1993 annual report indicated that 677,556 other animals were used, which is a tremendous increase from 1992 figures and initiated a review of the report by REAC. The review showed this figure to be wrong because of the inclusion of nonregulated animals reported by research facilities in the other animal category. The correct 1993 figure for other animals used in research is 212,309 which is shown in table 2. The figures shown for 1990-1992 are also suspect because of the high numbers compared to figures for other years. A review was not made of the 1992 annual report figures for other animals but it is very likely that many of the nonregulated animals were reported and inadvertently included in the count for other animals. The general trend has been a significant increase in the number of other animals reported used in research since 1973. The increase in use of these animals may be partly due to the decreased use of dogs, cats, guinea pigs, and hamsters. It may also be due to more research being done in the areas of wild animal management and the fact that some wild animals appear to be good animal models for certain disease conditions. Whatever the reasons may be, the use of other animals in research has increased significantly over the past 23 years. ■

act may be cited as the "Agricultural Market Transition Act."

"Section 903. Regulation of Commercial Transportation of Equine for Slaughter.

Subject to the availability of appropriations, the Secretary of Agriculture may issue guidelines for the regulation of commercial transportation of equine for slaughter by persons regularly engaged in that activity within the United States. In carrying out this section, the Secretary shall review the food, water, and rest provided to equine for slaughter in transit, the segregation of stallions from other equine during transit, and such other issues as the Secretary considers appropriate." The Secretary may also conduct investigations and inspections, establish civil penalties and require people to maintain records and file reports. Related bill S. 1541.

- **S. 1847 A bill to amend the Packers and Stockyards Act of 1921 to make it unlawful for any stockyard owner, market agency, or dealer to transfer or market non-ambulatory cattle, sheep, swine, horses, mules, or goats, and for other purposes.**

Introduced on June 6, 1996, by Daniel Akaka (D-Hawaii) and referred to the Committee on Agriculture, Nutrition, and Forestry. This bill may be cited as the "Downed Animal Protection Act."

"It shall be unlawful for any stockyard owner, market agency, or dealer to buy, sell, give, receive, transfer, market, hold, or drag any nonambulatory livestock unless the nonambulatory livestock has been humanely euthanized." Related bill H.R. 2143.

- **S. 1899 A bill entitled the "Mollie Beattie Alaska Wilderness Area Act."**

Introduced on June 24, 1996, by Ted Stevens (R-Alaska) and signed into law by President Clinton on July 2, 1996.

"Section 702(3) of Public Law 96-487 is amended by striking 'Arctic National Wildlife Refuge Wilderness' and inserting 'Mollie Beattie Wilderness.' The Secretary of the Interior is authorized to place a monument in honor of Mollie Beattie's contributions to fish, wildlife, and waterfowl conservation and management at a

suitable location that he designates within the [refuge]." Ed. note: Mollie Beattie was the Director of the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service. She died earlier this year from cancer.

- **S. 1915 A bill to amend the Endangered Species Act of 1973 to prohibit the sale of products labeled as containing endangered species, and for other purposes.**

Introduced on June 27, 1996, by James Jeffords (R-Vermont) and referred to the Committee on Environment and Public Works. This bill may be cited as the "Rhino and Tiger Product Labeling Act."

"Congress finds that (1) the populations of several magnificent and unique endangered species, such as the African black rhinoceros, the southern white rhinoceros, and many tiger subspecies, are declining; (2) growing demand throughout the world for wildlife and wildlife parts has created a market in which commercial exploitation has threatened certain wildlife populations; (3) there is no legal mechanism enabling the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service to confiscate products labeled as containing endangered species and prosecute the merchandiser for sale or display of the products; and (4) (A) although approximately 90,000 import and export shipments occur annually in the United States, the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service is able to maintain only 74 wildlife inspectors at 11 ports of entry to monitor the shipments; and (B) wildlife inspectors are able to physically inspect an estimated 5 percent of all shipments, making the detection rate of contraband wildlife products extremely low."

Section 9(a) of the Endangered Species Act of 1973 is amended by including in the prohibition the sale of "any product labeled as containing any such species or any species of fish or wildlife listed in Appendix 1 to the Convention." The prohibition is also extended to endangered plants listed in Appendix 1 to the Convention.

To find out the status of these or any other bills, contact the congressional bill status line at (202) 225-1772. This information is also available on the World Wide Web at <http://thomas.loc.gov/d104/d104query.html>

U.S. Department of Agriculture Proposes Greater Protection for Cats and Dogs

July 3, 1996. The U.S. Department of Agriculture is proposing to amend the regulations for the humane treatment of dogs and cats under the Animal Welfare Act by disallowing tethering as a means of primary enclosure for dogs; revising temperature requirements for housing and traveling facilities; and imposing new cage flooring requirements to enhance sanitation. The Act does not regulate privately owned pets.

"We are proposing these changes to help ensure that dogs and cats protected under the AWA are treated in a humane manner," said Michael V. Dunn, assistant secretary for marketing and regulatory programs. "Continuous confinement of dogs on tethers is considered by many to be inhumane, and exposing dogs and cats to high temperatures can cause serious trauma or death. We also believe that coated wire flooring in dog and cat cages will improve sanitation, help eliminate foot injuries, and provide comfort for the animals."

The proposed temperature changes state that ambient temperatures must never exceed 90°F (32.2°C) when dogs or cats are present.

"These proposals reflect concerns voiced by the public and affected industries during a series of public meetings we held earlier this year," Dunn continued. "These meetings are an important component of our continuing efforts to improve standards of care and strengthen enforcement of the AWA."

For further information or a copy of Docket No. 95-078-1 (the proposed tethering and temperature requirements) or Docket No. 95-100-1 (the proposed flooring requirements) contact:

Stephen Smith, animal health technician, animal care, REAC, APHIS, USDA, Suite 6D02, 4700 River Road Unit 84, Riverdale, MD 20737-1234, phone: (301) 734-7833.

These notices were published in the July 2 *Federal Register*. ■

NO DOGS ALLOWED?

Federal Policies on Access for Service Animals

by

*Kelly Henderson, M.Ed., Department of Special Education,
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For ages, humans have explored the potential healing benefit of animal companions for people who are ill or who have disabilities. The use of animals to assist their ailing human counterparts dates to the early Greeks who gave horseback rides to raise the spirits of people who were incurably ill, and documentation from the seventeenth century makes medical reference to horseback riding as treatment for gout, neurological disorders, and low morale (6). Even the famous nursing pioneer Florence Nightingale testified to the benefits of pet animals for the sick (11).

Since the middle of this century, the physical and emotional needs of disabled people in Western societies have become more visible and demanded more public attention (13). A variety of methods have been sought to increase the personal independence of people with disabilities. Since the 1960's, use of companion animals to increase physical mobility has contributed to logistical and emotional independence for many people with sensory, health, and other physical impairments. Probably the first systematic use of companion animals to assist disabled Americans was the training of dogs to guide people who are blind and visually impaired. While the earliest formal training of guide dogs in the United States dates back 65 years (8), widespread training has only occurred during the last three decades. Sixteen major guide dog training facilities operate in the United States (20). Each is administered independently. Guide dog training techniques are similar across schools, but policies, such as applicant requirements and types of dogs used, vary.

While guide dogs for the blind are the most commonly identified companions for people with disabilities, a number of other partnerships have been initiated. In 1975, Canine Companions for Independence (CCI)

pioneered the concept of the service dog, a highly trained canine used to assist people who have disabilities with specialized services. CCI classifies specific types of service dogs by function. Service dogs perform tasks such as operating light switches, retrieving items, pulling wheelchairs, and opening doors. Hearing dogs assist people who are deaf or hearing impaired by alerting them to sounds such as telephone rings, crying infants, alarms, and people calling them by name.

The largest of service animal training organizations, CCI has four training centers across the United States. Several other groups operate training facilities either nationally or regionally. Policies vary by organization though many facilities prepare dogs to serve both mobility-impaired people and those with hearing impairments. Throughout the United States, nearly 70 organizations train service dogs, and about 45 providers train hearing dogs (19). Assistance Dogs International, Inc., a nonprofit association of training programs, establishes standards that member organizations must meet.

While canine assistants have great potential for improving the quality of life for many disabled people, the use of service animals remains an exception to the rule. In its 20-year history, CCI has trained only 600 animals. At least 9 million Americans live with significant physical and sensory impairments (14), but there are only 10,000-12,000 assistance dogs at work, of which 7,000 are guide dogs (5).

Social animals, those used to address animal-assisted therapy goals, are trained and used in a wide variety of settings including hospitals, nursing facilities, schools, and other institutions. While several national organizations provide structured training and certification programs for these animals, most are not recognized as "service animals" under Federal law. Therefore, this category of assistance



animals will not be referenced in this review of service animal policy.

Policy Overview

Federal policy dictating access and training rights for disabled people who have service animals has, but for the past decade, been virtually nonexistent (1,2,9,12). In its absence, many individual States did address rights for service animals through laws providing disabled people access to public facilities and housing. To date, all States and the District of Columbia have to some extent legislated such access rights. However, the extent of coverage varies considerably State to State and many State codes do not include reference to service dogs other than guide and hearing dogs.

In two major pieces of Federal transportation and housing legislation, provisions to prohibit discrimination against people with disabilities were interpreted to include access for service animals. Regulations implementing the Air Carrier Access Act of 1986 (1) and the Fair Housing Act of 1988 (9) clarify that anti-discrimination protections extend to people who use service animals.

The Air Carrier Access Act of 1986 (ACAA)

The first Federal legislation to directly address public access rights of people with disabilities who have service animals was the Air Carrier Access Act of 1986 (1). The act amended the Federal Aviation Act of 1958 to provide that prohibitions of discrimination against handicapped people apply to air carriers. Regulations clarify that air carriers must permit "dogs and other service animals used by handicapped people to accompany the people on a flight" (16). As a result of these 1986 stipulations regarding air transport, the

1990 Americans with Disabilities Act does not reference air carriers in its Title II and III transportation requirements.

The ACAA regulations provide one of the most specific statements of Federal policy regarding accommodation of service animals. While efforts to implement other Federal laws, such as the Americans with Disabilities Act, rely largely on technical assistance guidance, regulatory examples, and settlements to guarantee access and accommodation rights for disabled people who have service animals, the ACAA directly regulates these rights. The act requires air carriers to permit service animals to accompany people with disabilities on flights (14 CFR 382.55 (a)) (16).

(1) Carriers shall accept as evidence that an animal is a service animal identification cards, other written documentation, presence of harnesses or markings on harnesses, tags, or the credible verbal assurances of the qualified handicapped person using the animal.

(2) Carriers shall permit a service animal to accompany a qualified handicapped individual in any seat which the person sits, unless the animal obstructs an aisle or other area that must remain unobstructed in order to facilitate an emergency evacuation.

(3) In the event that special information concerning the transportation of animals outside the continental United States is either required to be or is provided by the carrier, the information shall be provided to all passengers traveling outside the continental United States with the carrier, including those traveling with service animals.

Service animals are also referenced in the act's regulations regarding seat assignments and clarifies that in the case that the service animal cannot be accommodated at the seat location of his/her human companion, the carrier must offer the passenger the opportunity to move with the animal to another seat as an alternative to requiring the animal to travel with checked baggage (14 CFR 382.37(c)).

The Fair Housing Amendments Act

In a comprehensive housing rights bill, Congress provided specific

rights to accommodations for people with disabilities. The Fair Housing Amendments Act of 1988 prohibits discrimination in the sale or rental of a dwelling based on handicap (9). The act defines discrimination to include:

- a) A refusal to permit, at the expense of the handicapped person, reasonable modifications of existing premises occupied or to be occupied by such person if modifications may be necessary to afford such person full enjoyment of the premises...; or
- b) a refusal to make reasonable accommodations in rules, policies, practices, or services, when such accommodations may be necessary to afford such person equal opportunity to use and enjoy a dwelling.

The implementing regulations restate the law with regard to the policy on reasonable accommodations, and contribute an illustration by example (10):

Example (1): A blind applicant for rental housing wants to live in a dwelling unit with a seeing eye dog. The building has a no pets policy. It is a violation of Section 100.204 for the owner or manager of the apartment complex to refuse to permit the applicant to live in the apartment with a seeing eye dog, because without the seeing eye dog, the blind person will not have an equal opportunity to use and enjoy a dwelling.

The illustration does make clear that at least in the case of a guide dog for the blind, reasonable accommodations in rules, policies, practices, or services include special consideration for housing of service animals.

The Americans With Disabilities Act (ADA)

National access rights for service animals (28 CFR 36.104 defines the term "service animal" as "any guide dog, signal dog, or other animal individually trained to provide assistance to an individual with a disability.") across settings became a reality with the passage of the Americans with Disabilities Act of 1990 (2). Title I, administered by the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC), prohibits employment discrimination against qualified individuals with disabilities. Under Title I, discrimination includes not making reasonable accommodations to the known physical or mental limita-

tions of an otherwise qualified individual who is an applicant or employee unless such covered entity can demonstrate that accommodation would impose an undue hardship on the operations of the business of such covered entity. (42 USC 12112(b)(5)(A))

Regulations (18) clarify the types of reasonable accommodations for which an employer is responsible. A sizable list of reasonable accommodations is noted in 29 CFR 1630.2(o) including modifications or adjustments to the work environment, or to the manner or circumstances under which the position held or desired is customarily performed, and acquisition or modifications of equipment or devices (29 CFR 1630.2(o)(2)(ii)).

Service Animal Information

Additional information on the acquisition, training, and rights of service animals is available from: (Please note that "800" phone numbers may not be accessible outside the United States.)

Assistance Dog Providers in the United States — a complete guide to finding a guide, hearing, or service dog. Seizure alert and therapy dogs also included. Hardback, 168 pp., \$27.00 (includes S&H) to: N.C. Service Dogs, 3598 W. Delphi Pike, Marion, IN 46952, phone: 317-384-5530.

Legal Rights of Guide Dogs, Hearing Dogs and Service Dogs — includes a summary of all State policies regarding service dog access. Softcover, 64 pgs., \$6.00 to: Assistance Dogs International, Inc., c/o Freedom Service Dogs, Inc., P.O. Box 150217, Lakewood, CO 80215-0217, phone: 303-234-9512.

Delta Society National Service Dog Center - provides advocacy education, referral, research assistance, and a variety of other information services regarding service dogs. 289 Perimeter Road East, Renton, WA 98055-1329; 800-869-6898 Voice, 800-809-2714 TDD.

Assistance Dog Institute — promotes research and development and provides education on assistance dog programs. P.O. Box 2334, Rohnert Park, CA 94927.

Americans With Disabilities Act Information Line, U.S. Department of Justice, 800-514-0301 Voice, 800-514-0383 TDD.

Title II, Section 12132, of the ADA prohibits discrimination against qualified disabled people in public services including public transportation. Though the Title II regulations (28 CFR 35.130) do require "reasonable modifications" to avoid discrimination, they do not directly acknowledge access rights of service animals.

Of all sections of the Americans with Disabilities Act, Title III references service animals most directly. Title III prohibits discrimination of people with disabilities in public accommodations and services operated by private entities. Section 12182(b)(2)(A) clarifies specific prohibitions on discrimination on the basis of disability, and includes in the definition of discrimination:

a failure to make reasonable modifications in policies, practices, or procedures, when such modifications are necessary to afford such goods, services, facilities, privileges, advantages, or accommodations to individuals with disabilities, unless the entity can demonstrate that making such modifications would fundamentally alter the nature of such goods, services, facilities, privileges, advantages, or accommodations. (42 USC 12182(b)(2)(A)(ii))

The U.S. Department of Justice (DOJ) implementing regulations (15) clarify "modifications in policies, practices, or procedures." 28 CFR Section 36.302(c) specifically addresses service animals and clarifies that "Generally, a public accommodation shall modify policies, practices, or procedures to permit the use of a service animal by an individual with a disability" (see *AWIC Newsletter* vol. 6 #2-4--Americans with Disabilities Act and its Applicability to Zoos). The regulation further clarifies that public accommodations are not required to supervise or care for a service animal.

Implementation of the ADA

The EEOC and the DOJ, Civil Rights Division, use several reference aids to clarify the legislative intent of the ADA. Both agencies publish technical assistance manuals (21,22) that provide clarifications of the code and regulation through explanations and examples. Both agencies also have authority to take a variety of actions in

response to complaints and charges filed. Service animal policy is thus affected by the lawsuits, amicus briefs, and formal and informal settlement agreements brokered by the agencies.

EEOC technical assistance guidelines (21) support the Title I regulatory language and define employers' responsibilities to make modifications for people with disabilities who have service animals in the workplace.

It may also be a reasonable accommodation to permit an individual with a disability the opportunity to provide and utilize equipment, aids or services that an employer is not required to provide as a reasonable accommodation. For example, it would be a reasonable accommodation for an employer to permit an individual who is blind to use a guide dog at work, even though the employer would not be required to provide a guide dog for the employee. (29 CFR 1630.2 App)

Title III prohibits discrimination on the basis of disability in public accommodations. U.S. Department of Justice regulations do specifically define service animals and require public accommodations to modify policies and procedures to permit use of service animals. The *Title III Technical Assistance Manual* (22) clarifies the definition of service animal by listing tasks typically performed by service animals: guiding people who have impaired vision, alerting individuals with impaired hearing to the presence of intruders or sounds, providing minimal protection or rescue work, pulling a wheelchair, or retrieving dropped items (III-4.2300).

The manual reinforces the access policy via illustration.

An individual who is blind wishes to be accompanied in a restaurant by her guide dog. The restaurant must permit the guide dog to accompany its owner in all areas of the restaurant open to other patrons and may not insist that the dog be separated from her (III-4.2300).

The manual offers additional guidance regarding responsibilities of the service animal owner and of the public accommodation (III-4.2300).

The care or supervision of a service animal is the responsibility of his or her owner, not the public accommodation. A public accommodation may not require an individual with a dis-

ability to post a deposit as a condition of permitting a service animal to accompany its owner in a place of public accommodation, even if such deposits are required for pets.

In these cases, the technical assistance and interpretive guidance helps to secure public access and employment accommodation rights for people with disabilities who have service animals. However, in a recent manual supplement, the guidance describes situations in which it would be permissible for health and safety reasons to not allow access to service animals. The *DOJ Title III Technical Assistance Manual* (22) attempts to clarify these provisions by acknowledging that in rare circumstances, if the nature of the goods and services provided or accommodations offered would be fundamentally altered or the safe operation of a public accommodation jeopardized, a service animal may not be allowed to enter (III-4.2300, 1994 Supplement).

In practice, health concerns have given rise to conflicts about the access of service animals in medical facilities. Though many hospitals work to negotiate satisfactory access policies, some institutions remain less flexible, leaving disabled people with service animals to pursue legal remedies through State or Federal channels.

ADA Complaint Resolution

Both the EEOC and DOJ investigate charges of ADA violations. The DOJ has been involved in a number of recent lawsuits, briefs, and settlements that address access and accommodation rights for service animals. One case, *Crowder v. Kitigawa* (7), went to trial on constitutional, as well as ADA, Title II (prohibition of discrimination in activities of state and local government) claims. In February 1994, the U.S. District Court for the District of Hawaii ruled against the plaintiff, a visually disabled guide dog user who protested Hawaii's canine quarantine. In June 1994, the U.S. Department of Justice filed an amicus brief (23) supporting an appeal of the case, which is currently under review by the U.S. Court of Appeals.

Several additional complaints regarding access rights for people with disabilities who have service animals have been pursued by the Department of Justice. In at least two formal and several informal settlement agreements

with the DOJ under Title III of the ADA, owners and operators of private businesses agreed to modify policies with respect to access for service animals. Upon negotiation with the DOJ, most public accommodations and facilities agreed to take steps to ensure that disabled people who use service animals are provided access to the facilities. For example, an inn modified its policy to permit people with disabilities accompanied by service animals to stay without paying the \$25 flea extermination service fee. In another settlement, a drugstore chain agreed to modify its "no animals" policies by making exceptions for service animals.

Other Implementation Concerns

Beyond the regulatory enforcement and judicial interpretations of Federal law, access and accommodation rights for service animals are further affected by several other factors. To date, Federal policies fail to address a number of aspects related to service animals.

The training of service animals is currently not regulated by Federal agencies. No Federal law or regulation includes reference to access for animals in training, although 21 States do secure such rights in State code (4). No guidelines for service animal trainers or for certification of the animals themselves is found in Federal policy. Though a number of service animal training organizations do maintain membership in Assistance Dogs International, Inc., and meet ADI standards for training, each organization may still maintain its own certification and evaluation criteria. While no federally recognized certification or training standards have yet been established, two Federal laws address certification or other proof of service animal status. Regulations implementing the ACAA require air carriers to accept as evidence that an animal is a service animal identification cards, other written documents, presence of harnesses or other markings on harnesses, tags or the credible verbal assurances of the qualified handicapped person using the animal (14 CFR 382.55(a)(1)). Department of Justice ADA technical assistance indicates that a number of States have programs to certify service animals; however, a private entity cannot insist on proof of State certification before permitting the entry of a service animal to a place of public accommodation. The importance of training and use of service

animals to people with disabilities has yet to be recognized by the health insurance industry (3). For example, the time a parent of a child with a disability or an adult with a disability invests to attend a service animal training session (some as long as 6 weeks) is not covered by Federal Family and Medical Leave Act criteria of "serious illness" (17).

The use of service animals has improved the quality of life for people with sensory and physical disabilities. While people with disabilities in America still confront barriers erected by ignorance and misinformation, the three major Federal laws reviewed above work to defeat such discrimination by guaranteeing access and accommodation rights to people with disabilities who use service animals.

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Rex Leonard Burch (1926-1996)

Humane Scientist, Prophet, Dreamer, and Visionary

by

Michael Balls, D. Phil.

This article originally appeared in Science and Animal Care, Spring 1996. Reprinted by permission of Working for Animals used in Research, Drugs, and Surgery (WARDS), 8150 Leesburg Pike, Suite 512, Vienna, VA 22182.

Rex Burch died in a hospital in Norwich, Norfolk, England, on March 9, 1996, after a long fight against a terminal illness, borne with a courage which amazed both his friends and those who cared for him. He left us a priceless legacy, in the form of his book, *The Principles of Humane Experimental Technique*, written with William Russell and first published in 1959.

The main conclusion of the book is that all concerned in any way with laboratory animal use have a moral duty to do all they can to replace the need for animal experiments, to reduce the numbers of animals used to an unavoidable minimum, and to refine any procedures necessarily used, so as to minimize any pain or distress suffered by animals in attempts to meet the essential needs of human beings and other animals. These Three Rs (replacement, reduction and refinement) are the basis of the concept of alternatives, which is now enshrined in various national and international laws, and the focus of attention of organizations all over the world, including CAAT (the Center for Alternatives to Animal Testing, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Maryland), FRAME (the Fund for the Replacement of Animals in Medical Experiments, Nottingham UK), and ECVAM (the European Centre for the Validation of Alternative Methods, Ispra, Italy).

The greatest value of the Three Rs concept is that it can encourage unity and cooperation among those who are otherwise divided. Those who want to see the fastest possible end to all experimentation can work to reduce, refine and replace with those whose current responsibilities make some animal use unavoidable.

The Three Rs are not only good for animals, they are also good for science. Russell and Burch spelled it out like this in what I like to call their Humanity Criterion:

"If we are to use a criterion for choosing experiments to perform, the criterion of humanity is the best we could possibly invent. The greatest scientific experiments have always been the most humane and the most aesthetically attractive, conveying that sense of beauty and elegance which is the essence of science at its most successful."

The Principles of Humane Experimental Technique resulted from a project set up in 1954 by the British Universities Federation for Animal Welfare (UFAW). Rex Burch travelled all over Britain during the next five years, and interviewed more than 100 scientists.

When the book was published, it was very well received, and Charles Hume, Founder of UFAW, expected it to revolutionize attitudes toward laboratory animals and the ways in which they were treated and cared for. Strangely, and for reasons which nobody appears to fully understand, this did not happen immediately. The book was largely ignored during the 1960s, partly because their UFAW-funded project being complete, Russell and Burch themselves embarked on the next stages of their careers. William Russell became a successful comparative psychologist at the University of Reading, where he is now Professor Emeritus, and Rex Burch set up a microbiological testing service, in which he established high scientific standards and a reputation for concern for his customers which are no less legendary than his contributions to laboratory animal welfare.

The Three Rs were "rediscovered" during the 1970s, partly because of the development of FRAME and other replacement alternative organizations, partly because 1975-76 was declared Animal Welfare Year in Britain, to mark the 100th anniversary of the passage of the Cruelty to Animals Act in 1876, which regulated animal experimentation in Britain for more than 100 years, and partly because of an investigation by Professor David Smyth, which resulted in the publication of his book, *Alternatives to Animal Experimentation*, in 1978. By the mid-1980s, the Three Rs concept had become an integral part of new laboratory animal protection laws, notably of Directive 86/609/EEC, which is binding on all 15 member states of the European Union. However, it was not until the late 1980s that Russell and Burch themselves were "rediscovered," first by Martin Stephens, of the Humane Society of the United States, (HSUS), and Alan Goldberg, of CAAT. I did not meet Rex Burch until 1994, although I had visited Sheringham, the small seaside town in Norfolk where he had set up his testing laboratory, almost every year since he first went there in 1972. I must have walked within a few feet of his laboratory on dozens of occasions. I shall always wish that I had noticed the plaque outside the building so that our friendship could have been longer.

To the delight of Rex Burch among many others, great events have already happened during the 1990s. The HSUS has established an annual Russell & Burch award and FRAME has named its new headquarters Russell & Burch House. William Russell was the chief guest at the *First World Congress on Alternatives and Animal Use in the Life Sciences*, organized by Alan Goldberg and held in Baltimore in November 1993.

Sadly, Rex Burch was too ill to travel to Washington to accept the first HSUS Russell & Burch Award, to attend the *First World Congress*, or to join Professor Russell in declaring Russell & Burch House open. Alan Goldberg and I therefore

decided that if Rex Burch couldn't come to us, we would go to him.

As a result, an ECVAM Workshop on *The Three Rs: The Way Forward* was held at Sheringham, May 30-June 3, 1995. Rex Burch and William Russell were both present, along with 20 of the world's leading Three Rs campaigners. The report of this workshop (*Alternatives to Laboratory Animals (ATLA)* 23: 838-866, 1995) contains 58 far-reaching recommendations, but this occasion was no less important because it clearly meant a great deal to Rex Burch himself. The participants unanimously reaffirmed their commitment to the Three Rs with the following words:

"Humane science is good science, and this is best achieved by vigorous application of the Three Rs: reduction alternatives, refinement alternatives, replacement alternatives. Thus, the only acceptable animal experiment is one which uses the smallest possible number of animals, and causes the least possible pain or distress which is consistent with the achievement of a justifiable scientific purpose, and which is necessary because there is no other way of achieving that purpose. Any proposed experiment on animals should be subjected to prior and effective expert review by an ethics committee or an equivalent body. The Three Rs should be seen as a challenge and as an opportunity for reaping benefits of every kind - scientific, economic and humanitarian - not as a threat."

A number of Rex's friends had hoped that he would write his autobiography. He did begin to do so, but the final stages of his illness intervened. He did, however, write the *Progress of Humane Experimental Technique Since 1959- A Personal View*, which was published in 1995 (*ATLA* 23: 776-783). In this article, he describes how he became involved in the UFAW project, the production of the book and, with particular delight, his reactions to the tremendous progress made by the Three Rs concept in recent years. He ended this, his last publication, with the following words:

"Included in our dreams of 1959 were centers to coordinate work and progress researchers on an international scale and, above all, sponsors from both industries and governments. These have come to pass, and bring me to closing with a quotation (from the Bible) to which I have become very attached, "Your sons and daughters shall prophecy, your old men shall dream dreams, your young men shall see visions."

Rex Burch was an outstanding human being, remarkable because of his lifelong enthusiasm for science (his school friends called him "The Professor") and his concern for all those with whom he came into contact. With regard to laboratory animal welfare, he was a prophet, a dreamer and a visionary. With William Russell, he established the foundations on which a sound, realistic and far-reaching superstructure can be built. Let us get on with the work by contributing our own particular talents to the achievement of the Three Rs revolution.

Michael Balls is Head of the European Center for the Validation of Alternative Methods, Ispra, Italy, Chairman of the Trustees of FRAME (Fund for the Replacement of Animals in Medical Experiments), and Emeritus Professor in the University of Nottingham Medical School. He was awarded the 1994 Russell & Burch Award of the Humane Society of the United States. ■

Announcements...

● Revised Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals Available

The Institute for Laboratory Animal Resources (ILAR) of the National Academy of Sciences has published the 1996 revision of the *Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals (Guide)*. The Public Health Service (PHS) Policy on Humane Care and Use of Laboratory Animals requires that institutions receiving PHS for activities involving animals base their programs of animal care and use on the *Guide* and comply, as applicable, with the Animal Welfare Act and other Federal statutes and regulations relating to animals. By July 31, 1997, all PHS-assured institutions are expected to have conducted at least one semiannual program and facility evaluation, complete with reasonable and specific plans and schedules for corrections of deficiencies where appropriate, using the 1996 *Guide* as the basis for the evaluation.

Copies of the *Guide* are available from the Office for Protection from Research Risks at (301) 496-7163 ext. 226; ILAR at (202) 334-2590 and ; the National Center for Research Resources, National Institutes of Health at (301) 435-0744. It is also available on the World Wide Web at <http://www2.nas.edu/ilarhome/>

● New Videos

Basics of Aseptic Surgery and Anesthesia in Rodents

Filmed in a laboratory setting, this 21-minute video is designed for research and educational personnel who perform surgery on rodents. In the video, a laboratory rat is used to demonstrate techniques that are applicable to rats and other small laboratory rodents. The initial demonstration shows how to restrain rodents in preparation for an intraperitoneal injection of anesthetic (ketamine-xylazine). Once the animal is anesthetized, the surgeon prepares multiple sites for operative procedures. In addition to anesthesia by injection, the video demonstrates two different methods of inhalation anesthesia, precision vaporizer and closed container. Discussion also focuses on personal attire and scrubbing procedures that the surgeon uses to prepare for the surgery. Once the animal and surgeon are prepared, the animal is moved to the surgery area, and techniques are presented for maintaining a sterile field and performing surgeries on multiple animals. The presentation then focuses on options and recommendations for monitoring the animal during anesthesia and the postoperative period. Use of laboratory animals in recovery surgery is common in research and education, and Federal laws mandate that aseptic techniques be followed in the conduct of such surgery. This video is designed to begin to meet that mandate and to improve the welfare of animals used in surgery.

ORDERING INFORMATION

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COST: Purchase (U.S.): 1/2-inch VHS--\$110

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Or call toll free: (800) 770-2111

This publication is available in alternative media on request. Additional information can be found at <http://www.cde.psu.edu/MediaSales/Releases/Aseptic-Surgery/Default.html>

Peter Singer Lecture at the University of Wisconsin

A 1995 presentation by philosopher and author Peter Singer focusing on "The Great Ape Project" is available on videotape. The 53-minute video is entitled *Humans and Animals: Bridging the Gap* and is available for U.S. \$10 from Animal Liberation Action Group, Campus Connection, Reeve Memorial Union, University of Wisconsin at Oshkosh, 748 Algoma Blvd., Oshkosh, WI 54901-3512, phone: (414) 235-4887, fax: (414) 424-7317, e-mail: Animal-Lib@vaxa.cis.uwosh.edu

● **Electronic Newsletter: NetVet Links**

Ken Boschert, DVM, founder of the popular website NetVet, introduces *NetVet Links*, an electronic periodic summary of new veterinary websites. The inaugural edition (May 1996) includes over 100 sites. The newsletter will be distributed to the following mailing lists and online services: VETINFO, VETMED-L, COMPMED, VETWEB, VET-LIB-L, PROMED, NOAH, and VIN. For additional information, contact Dr. Boschert, Washington University, Division of Comparative Medicine, Box 8061, 660 S. Euclid Ave., St. Louis, MO 63110, phone: (314) 362-3700, fax: (314) 362-6480, e-mail: ken@wudcm.wustl.edu

● **APHIS Forms Available on the Web**

USDA's Animal and Plant Health Inspection Service (APHIS) has made many of its forms available on the World Wide Web. The forms are in PostScript and in Portable Document Format (PDF). The user must install the Adobe Acrobat Reader to view and print the PDF files. Program Units that have posted forms are Biotechnology, Biologics, and Environmental Protection; Plant Protection and Quarantine; and Veterinary Services. For more information, contact Keith Reding at kreding@www.aphis.usda.gov.

● **IACUC Seminar and Resource Guide**

IACUC: The Charge and the Challenge II, an interactive seminar for Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) members, will be held on November 18, 1996, at the Merrill Lynch Conference and Training Center, Plainsboro (near Princeton), New Jersey. Registration for individuals whose institutions are members of New Jersey Association for Biomedical Research (ABR) is \$100; non-

members: \$125. For a registration form, contact New Jersey ABR, P.O. Box 8449, Elizabeth, NJ 07208, phone: (908) 355-4456, fax: (908) 355-2938, e-mail: njabr@aol.com

New Jersey ABR has produced a revised edition of *Animals in Research: A Resource Guide*. The spiral-bound book was compiled in response to requests from educators, librarians, and students for information about use of animals in research, education, and consumer product testing. To order, send a check for \$30 payable to *New Jersey ABR*, P.O. Box 8449, Elizabeth, NJ 07208.

● **National Cell Culture Center**

The National Cell Culture Center is a resource facility that provides large-scale mammalian cell culture services. The center, available to researchers throughout the United States and Canada, has been established to alleviate the shortage of facilities and expertise required to meet the cell culture needs of the biomedical research community. It provides researchers with large quantity production of mammalian cells in suspension or monolayer cultures, production of monoclonal antibodies, and nonhybridoma cell secreted proteins. Direct programmatic inquiries can be addressed to Elaine Young, phone: (301) 435-0776, e-mail: elaaney@ep.ncrr.nih.gov. Application and resource inquiries should be addressed to Dr. Mark Hirschel, phone: (800) 325-1112.

● **Department of Defense Biomedical Website**

The Department of Defense (DoD) website features descriptions of federally funded DoD biomedical research, testing, and training programs. Areas covered include infectious diseases, biological hazards, toxicology, medical education, laboratory animals, and more. The URL is <http://dticam.dtic.mil/www/dodbr>.

● **Animal Welfare Act Violations**

August 1, 1996. The U.S. Department of Agriculture recently charged licensed animal dealers Glen G. Wrigley and Buckshire Corp. of Perkasio, Pennsylvania, with violations of the regulations and standards of the Animal Welfare Act in 1994 and 1995. APHIS inspectors found violations in the areas of recordkeeping, veterinary care, housing, sanitation, pest control, and storage.

Note: APHIS news releases, program announcements, and media advisories are available on the Internet. Access the APHIS Home Page at <http://www.aphis.usda.gov> and click on "APHIS Press Releases." Anyone with an e-mail address can sign-up to receive APHIS press releases automatically. Send an e-mail message to major-domo@info.aphis.usda.gov and leave the subject blank. In the message, type `subscribe press_releases`

● **SCAW on the Net**

You can now reach the Scientists Center for Animal Welfare (SCAW) by e-mail at: scaw@erols.com ■



Courtesy of Hereford World

National Youth Livestock Program Ethics Symposium

Recent times have given rise to the public revelation of unethical and illegal activity associated with youth livestock programs across the United States. While the majority of exhibitors at youth livestock expositions are responsible stewards of their animals, the actions of a few unethical individuals could endanger the existence of educational youth livestock programs.

In keeping with its history of addressing issues of concern in animal agriculture, the Livestock Conservation Institute will facilitate a Youth Livestock Program Ethics Symposium on December 6-8, 1996, at the Hyatt Regency in Dallas-Fort Worth, Texas.

The symposium, designed to help livestock show competitors, educators, and others deal with the problem of unethical activities, will include two "Super Sessions" keying on the topics "Adult Involvement--What's Excessive?" and "Jackpot Shows--How to Make Them Part of the Solution."

The symposium will also include break-out sessions on individual youth livestock issues and workshops that will include information about innovative programs that are addressing ethical issues.

For registration information, please contact the Livestock Conservation Institute at (502) 782-9798 or fax: (502) 782-0188.

The United States Department of Agriculture (USDA) prohibits discrimination in its programs on the basis of race, color, national origin, sex, religion, age, disability, political beliefs and marital or familial status. (Not all prohibited bases apply to all programs). Persons with disabilities who require alternative means for communication of program information (braille, large print, audiotape, etc.) should contact the USDA Office of Communications at (202) 720-2791.

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ISSN 1050-561X

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